# An $L^{p}$ differentiable non-differentiable function 

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#### Abstract

There is a a set $E$ of positive Lebesgue measure and a function nowhere differentiable on $E$ which is differentible in the $L^{p}$ sense for every positive $p$ at each point of $E$. For every $p \in(0, \infty]$ and every positive integer $k$ there is a set $E=E(k, p)$ of positive measure and a function which for every $q<p$ has $k L^{q}$ Peano derivatives at every point of $E$ despite not having an $L^{p} k$ th derivative at any point of $E$.


A real-valued function $f$ of a real variable is differentiable at $x$ if there is a real number $f^{\prime}(x)$ such that

$$
\left|f(x+h)-f(x)-f^{\prime}(x) h\right|=o(h) \quad \text { as } h \rightarrow 0
$$

Fix $p \in(0, \infty)$. A function is differentiable in the $L^{p}$ sense at $x$ if there is a real number $f_{p}^{\prime}(x)$ such that

$$
\left\|f(x+h)-f(x)-f_{p}^{\prime}(x) h\right\|_{p}=o(h) \quad \text { as } h \rightarrow 0
$$

where $\|g(h)\|_{p}=\left(\frac{1}{h} \int_{-h}^{h}|g(t)|^{p} d t\right)^{1 / p}$.
We have an infinite family of generalized first derivatives indexed by the parameter $p$. Most generalized derivatives are not equivalent to the ordinary derivative at a single point, but many are equivalent on an almost everywhere basis. For example, the symmetric derivative, defined by $f_{s}^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x-h)}{2 h}$, is zero for the absolute value function at $x=0$ even though that function is not differentiable at $x=0$, but this phenomenon which occurs at the single point $x=0$ never occurs on a set of positive measure: there cannot exist a set of positive measure $E$ and a function $g$ so that $g_{s}^{\prime}(x)$ exists at all points of $E$ and $g^{\prime}(x)$ exists at no points of $E .[\mathbf{K}$, page 217] In this sense the symmetric derivative is equivalent to ordinary differentiation. So a natural question to ask here is whether in this sense the various $L^{p}$ derivatives are different from ordinary differentiation and from one another. The point of this paper is to answer "yes" to this question.

If $p_{1}<p_{2}$ and $f$ is $L^{p_{2}}$ differentiable at $x$, then $f$ is $L^{p_{1}}$ differentiable at $x$; since by Holder's inequality,
$\left\|f(x+h)-f(x)-f_{p_{2}}^{\prime}(x) h\right\|_{p_{1}} \leq 2^{\frac{1}{p_{1}}-\frac{1}{p_{2}}}\left\|f(x+h)-f(x)-f_{p_{2}}^{\prime}(x) h\right\|_{p_{2}}=o(h)$

[^0]so that $f_{p_{1}}^{\prime}(x)$ exists and equals $f_{p_{2}}^{\prime}(x)$. It may be useful to think of a scale of derivatives indexed by $p$, the higher the value of $p$, the better the behavior. The best behavior, ordinary differentiability, occurs when $p=\infty$. Sometimes the scale is extended by placing the approximate derivative at $p=0$.

A function $f$ has a $k$ th Peano derivative at $x$ if there are real numbers $f^{i}(x), i=$ $0,1,2, \ldots, k$, such that

$$
\left|f(x+h)-f^{0}(x)-f^{1}(x) h-\cdots-f^{k}(x) \frac{h^{k}}{k!}\right|=o\left(h^{k}\right) \quad \text { as } h \rightarrow 0
$$

Fix $p \in(0, \infty)$. A function $f$ has a kth Peano derivative in the $L^{p}$ sense at $x$ if there are real numbers $f_{p}^{i}(x), i=0,1,2, \ldots, k$, such that

$$
\left\|f(x+h)-f_{p}^{0}(x)-f_{p}^{1}(x) h-\cdots-f_{p}^{k}(x) \frac{h^{k}}{k!}\right\|_{p}=o\left(h^{k}\right) \quad \text { as } h \rightarrow 0
$$

The same $p$-scale mentioned for first derivatives also holds for $k$ th Peano ones as well. Whatever the value of $k$, when $p \neq q, L^{p} k$ th order Peano differentiability is not a.e. equivalent to $L^{q} k$ th order Peano differentiability; this is the content of Theorems 2 and 3 below.

The first extensive discussion of the $L^{p}$ Peano derivative that I am aware of appeared in reference $[\mathbf{C Z}]$. Differentiation in the $L^{p}$ sense for the characteristic function of a set is very closely related to the concept of super density, which is discussed in reference $[\mathbf{L M Z}]$.

Theorem 1. There is a set $E$ of positive Lebesgue measure and a function nowhere differentiable on $E$ which is differentiable in the $L^{p}$ sense for every positive $p$ at each point of $E$.

Proof. Note that the characteristic function of the rational numbers provides a trivial example since it is nowhere differentiable, but is $L^{p}$ differentiable to 0 at every irrational point. To avoid such a triviality, we further specify that every element of the equivalence class defining the $L^{p}$ function should also fail to be differentiable on $E$, i.e. changing the function on a set of measure 0 should not improve the differentiability of the function.

Order the rational numbers into a sequence and for $n=1,2, \ldots$, let $G_{n}$ be an open interval centered at the $n$th rational of length $2^{-n^{2}}$. Let $C$ be the complement of $\cup_{i} G_{i}$. Since $\left|\cup_{i} G_{i}\right| \leq \sum 2^{-n^{2}}<\infty,|C|=\infty$. Let $\chi$ be the characteristic function of $C$. Let $I(x, h)=[x-h, x+h]$.

1. $\chi$ is not differentiable at almost every point of $C$. Let $C_{1}=\{x \in C: x$ is a point of density of $C\}$. Note that $\left|C \backslash C_{1}\right|=0$. Let $x \in C_{1}$. If $h$ is sufficiently small, $|I(x, h) \cap C|>h / 2$ so the essential lim sup of $\chi$ is 1 . On the other hand, since for any $h>0$, the interval $I(x, h)$ contains a rational number and hence a subinterval on which $\chi=0$ so the essential $\lim \inf$ of $\chi$ is 0 . Thus $\chi$ has no limiting value at $x$ and so all the more is not differentiable there.
2. $\chi$ does have a zero $L^{p}$ derivative for every positive $p$ at almost every point of $C_{1}$. This full measured subset of $C_{1}$ will be a set of positive measure and is the set promised in the statement of the theorem. Suppose that for each $p>0, \chi$ is $L^{p}$ differentiable on $C^{p}$, a full-measured subset of $C_{1}$. Then letting $A_{p}=C_{1} \backslash C^{p},\left|A_{p}\right|=$ 0 . Let $A=\cup A_{n}$ and $C_{2}=C_{1} \backslash A$. Then $\chi$ is not differentiable on $C_{2}$, but is $L^{p}$ differentiable on $C_{2}$ for every $p>0$, since by definition $\chi$ is $L^{\lceil p\rceil}$ differentiable and

Holder's inequality implies $L^{p}$ differentiability since $p \leq\lceil p\rceil$. Thus it is sufficient to fix $p$ and show that $A_{p}$ has measure 0 .

On $C^{p}$ we have

$$
\left(\frac{1}{h} \int_{-h}^{h}|\chi(x+t)-\chi(x)-0 \cdot t|^{p} d t\right)^{1 / p}=o(h)
$$

or, equivalently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-h}^{h}|\chi(x+t)-\chi(x)-0 \cdot t|^{p} d t=o\left(h^{p+1}\right) \tag{0.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

as $h \rightarrow 0$. To show that $\left|A_{p}\right|=0$, it suffices to show that for each $\epsilon>0,\left|A_{p}\right|<\epsilon$. Fix such an $\epsilon$ and pick $n$ so large that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n>p+1 \tag{0.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and so large that $(n+1) 2^{-n+1}<\epsilon$. Let $B_{p}=\cup_{i=1}^{n}\left\{x \in C_{1}\right.$ : $\left.\operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{i}\right)<2^{-n}\right\} \cup$ $\left(\cup_{j>n}\left\{x \in C_{1}: \operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{j}\right)<2^{-j}\right\}\right)$. Then $\left|B_{p}\right| \leq\left(2 \cdot 2^{-n}\right) n+\sum_{j>n} 2 \cdot 2^{-j}=$ $(n+1) 2^{-n+1}<\epsilon$, so it remains to show that (0.1) holds for $x \in C_{1} \backslash B_{p}$ so that $A_{p} \subset B_{p}$. Since $x \in C, \chi(x)=1$ and the absolute value of the left hand side is

$$
\ell=\int_{x-h}^{x+h}|\chi(s)-1|^{p} d s=\left|C^{c} \cap I\right|
$$

where $I=[x-h, x+h]$. Assume $h<2^{-n}$. Let $G_{j}$ be the first complementary interval that meets $I$. Since $x \notin B_{p}, j>n$. Since $2^{-(i+1)^{2}} \leq \frac{1}{2} 2^{-i^{2}}$ and $1+2^{-1}+$ $2^{-2}+\cdots=2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\ell & \leq\left|\cup_{i \geq j} G_{i}\right| \leq \sum_{i \geq j} 2^{-i^{2}} \leq 2 \cdot 2^{-j^{2}} \\
& =2\left(2^{-j}\right)^{j} \leq 2 h^{j}
\end{aligned}
$$

The last inequality holds because $x \notin B_{p}$ implies $2^{-j} \leq \operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{j}\right)$ and $G_{j} \cap$ $I(x, h) \neq \varnothing$ implies $\operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{j}\right) \leq h$. Since $j>n>p+1, h^{j}$ is $o\left(h^{p+1}\right)$ and relation (0.1) follows.

This example splits ordinary differentiation from all finite $L^{p}$ differentiation. Given any $p>0$, we can also create a function $f_{p}$ for which there is a set $E$ of positive measure on which $f_{p}$ is differentiable in the $L^{q}$ sense for every $q<$ $p$; but $f_{p}$ is not differentiable at any point of $E$ in the $L^{p}$ sense. We do this by making a "fat Cantor set" the $i$ th stage complementary open intervals being centered at all $(2 j+1) / 2^{n}$ and having measure $2^{-i(p+1)}$. The details are slightly more complicated. Theorem 3 below does this and a little bit more.

Note that the following theorem in particular separates the $k$ th Peano derivative from all $L^{p} k$ th Peano derivatives, $0<p<\infty$.

Theorem 2. There is a set $E$ of positive Lebesgue measure and a function having no limit at each point of $E$ which has a kth Peano derivative in the $L^{p}$ sense for every natural number $k$ and every positive $p$ at each point of $E$.

Proof. The function $\chi$ and the subset of $C$ of full measure appearing in the proof of the previous theorem are sufficient for this theorem also. In fact, for $x \in C$ set $f_{p}^{0}(x)=f(x)=1$ for $p \in(0, \infty)$; and set $f_{p}^{i}(x)=0$, for $i=1,2, \ldots$ and
$p \in(0, \infty)$. The defining condition for having a $k$ th $L^{p}$ Peano derivative at such an $x$ is

$$
\left(\frac{1}{h} \int_{-h}^{h}\left|f(x+t)-1-0 t-\cdots-0 \frac{t^{k}}{k!}\right|^{p} d t\right)^{1 / p}=o\left(h^{k}\right)
$$

or

$$
\int_{-h}^{h}|f(x+t)-1|^{p} d t=o\left(h^{k p+1}\right)
$$

The reasoning and calculations above remain unchanged, except that $n$ must be chosen larger than $k p+1$ instead of larger than $p+1$.

THEOREM 3. Let $p>0$ and $k$ be a positive integer. There is a set $E$ of positive Lebesgue measure and a bounded function nowhere Peano differentiable of order $k$ in the $L^{p}$ sense on $E$ which is Peano differentiable of order $k$ in the $L^{q}$ sense for every positive $q<p$ at each point of $E$.

Proof. The case $p=\infty$ and $k=1$ was treated first. Then followed the case $p=\infty$ and general $k$. The required example for $p$ finite is the characteristic function of a "fat Cantor set" with the $n$th stage complementary open intervals being centered at all $(2 j+1) / 2^{n}$ and having measure $c_{k p} 2^{-n(k p+1)}$, where $c_{k p}=$ $2^{k p}-1$. The details follow.

For $N=1,2,3, \ldots$, the complementary intervals of rank $N$ will be the open intervals $G_{i N}, i=1,2, \ldots, 2^{N-1}$, where the center of $G_{i N}$ is centered at $(2 i-1) / 2^{N}$ and $\left|G_{i N}\right|=c_{k p} 2^{-N(k p+1)}$. The center to center distance between contiguous intervals of rank $N$ is $2 \cdot \frac{1}{2^{N}}=2^{1-N}$. It will be convenient to work on $[0,1]$ thought of as a torus so that in particular $G_{1 N}$ and $G_{\left(2^{N}-1\right) N}$ are contiguous.

Let $C=\left(\cup_{n=1}^{\infty} \cup_{i=1}^{2^{n-1}} G_{i n}\right)^{c}, \chi=$ characteristic function of $C, x \in C$, and $h>0$. Note $|C|=1-\left|C^{c}\right|$ and $\left|C^{c}\right| \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^{n-1} c_{k p} 2^{-n(k p+1)}=1 / 2$, so $|C|>0$.

Then for any $p>0$,

$$
\begin{align*}
\int_{-h}^{h}\left|\chi(x+t)-\chi(x)-0 \cdot t-0 \frac{t^{2}}{2}-\cdots-0 \frac{t^{k}}{k!}\right|^{p} d t & =\int_{-h}^{h}|\chi(x+t)-1|^{p} d t  \tag{0.3}\\
& =\left|I \cap C^{c}\right|
\end{align*}
$$

where $I=[x-h, x+h]$. Find $m$ so that $2^{-m} \leq h<2^{-m+1}$. We have for some $j, \frac{j}{2^{m}} \leq x<\frac{j+1}{2^{m}}$. The complementary interval $G$ centered at the element of $\left\{\frac{j}{2^{m}}, \frac{j+1}{2^{m}}\right\}$ having even numerator has rank at most $m-1$ so that the half of $G$ interior to $\left[\frac{j}{2^{m}}, \frac{j+1}{2^{m}}\right]$ has measure at least $\frac{1}{2} \frac{c_{k p}}{2^{(k p+1)(m-1)}}$. Thus

$$
\left|I \cap C^{c}\right| \geq \frac{c_{k p}}{2}\left(\frac{1}{2^{m-1}}\right)^{k p+1} \geq \frac{c_{k p}}{2} h^{k p+1}
$$

We show below that when $q<p$, the first $k$ Peano $L^{q}$ derivatives of $\chi$ are 0 at a.e. $x \in C$, so by Holder's inequality, if the $L^{p}$ Peano derivatives exist at all, they must be zero. However, combining this inequality with equation (0.3) shows that

$$
\left(\frac{1}{h} \int_{-h}^{h}\left|\chi(x+t)-\chi(x)-0 \cdot t-0 \frac{t^{2}}{2!}-\cdots-0 \frac{t^{k}}{k!}\right|^{p} d t\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}>\left(\frac{c_{k p}}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} h^{k}
$$

which is not $o\left(h^{k}\right)$ so $\chi$ does not have a $k$ th $L^{p}$ Peano derivative at a.e. $x \in C$.
By the same reasoning as in the $L^{\infty}$ case above, it is enough to prove that if $q<p$ are fixed, and if $\epsilon>0$ is fixed, then there is a set $A=A(p, q, \epsilon), A \subset C$ such that $|A|<\epsilon$ and for every $x \in C \backslash A$,

$$
\left|[x-h, x+h] \cap C^{c}\right|=o\left(h^{k q+1}\right) .
$$

(In the reduction to the sufficiency of this assertion, one needs to establish this estimate directly for a countable set of $q$ 's that belong to $(0, p)$ and approach $p$.)

Pick $n$ such that $\frac{3}{n}<\epsilon$. Then for each positive integer $i$, let $A_{i}$ be the points of $C$ which are "close" to the complementary intervals of rank $i$; explicitly, for rank $i, i \leq n$ : let $A_{i}=\cup_{k=1}^{2^{i-1}}\left\{x \in C: \operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{k i}\right)<\frac{1}{n^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}\right\}$; and for rank $j, j>n$ : let $A_{j}=\cup_{k=1}^{2^{j-1}}\left\{x \in C: \operatorname{dist}\left(x, G_{k j}\right)<\frac{1}{j^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{j}}\right\}$. Let $A=\cup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_{i}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
|A| & \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|A_{i}\right|+\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty}\left|A_{i}\right| \\
& =\frac{2}{n^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} 2^{j-1}\right)+\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{i^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{i}} 2^{i-1} \\
& =\frac{2}{n^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}\left(2^{n}-1\right)+\sum_{i=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^{2}} \\
& \leq \frac{2}{n^{2}}+\int_{n}^{\infty} x^{-2} d x=\frac{2}{n^{2}}+\frac{1}{n}<\frac{3}{n}<\epsilon
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $x \in C \backslash A$ and fix $h>0$ so small that $h<\frac{1}{n^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{n}}$. Let $I=[x-h, x+h]$. Let $G$ be the first complementary interval intersecting $I$ and let $\ell$ be the rank of $G$ so that $|G|=\frac{c_{k p}}{2^{(k p+1) \ell}}$. Note that $\ell \geq n+1$ since $h$ is too small to allow any $G$ of rank $\leq n$ to intersect $I$. Since $G$ intersects $I$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
h>\frac{1}{\ell^{2}} \frac{1}{2^{\ell}} . \tag{0.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $m=\left\lfloor\log _{2} h\right\rfloor$ so that $2^{-m} \leq h<2^{-m+1}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
m \lesssim \log (1 / h) \tag{0.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $a(s)$ be the number of elements of rank $s$ that intersect $I$. Excluding the left-most and right-most elements, $a(s)-2$ centers of rank $s$ intervals are in $I$ and each of the $a(s)-3$ distances between these centers is $2 \frac{1}{2^{s}}$, whence $(a(s)-3) 2^{-s+1} \leq 2 h$, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(s) \leq 3+2^{s} h \tag{0.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $h<2^{1-m}$, it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { if } s<m \text {, then } a(s) \leq 4 \text {. } \tag{0.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\ell<m$, use inequalities (0.7) and (0.6) to obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\left|I \cap C^{c}\right| & \leq \sum_{s=\ell}^{\infty} a(s) c_{k p} 2^{-(k p+1) s} \\
& \leq \sum_{s=\ell}^{m-1} 4 \cdot c_{k p} 2^{-(k p+1) s}+3 \sum_{s=m}^{\infty} c_{k p} 2^{-(k p+1) s}+h \sum_{s=m}^{\infty} c_{k p} 2^{-k p s}  \tag{0.8}\\
& \lesssim 2^{-(k p+1) \ell}+h 2^{-k p m}
\end{align*}
$$

where $A \lesssim B$ means that for some constant $C(k, p), A \leq C(k, p) B$. From this and inequalities (0.4) and (0.5) we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|I \cap C^{c}\right| & \lesssim \ell^{2 k p+2}\left(\frac{1}{\ell^{2} 2^{\ell}}\right)^{k p+1}+h\left(\frac{1}{2^{m-1}}\right)^{k p} \\
& \leq m^{2 k p+2} h^{k p+1}+h^{k p+1} \\
& \lesssim \log ^{2 k p+2}(1 / h) h^{k p+1} \\
& =o\left(h^{k q+1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $\ell \geq m$, the estimate is even simpler; we get

$$
\left|I \cap C^{c}\right| \leq \sum_{s=m}^{\infty} a(s) c_{k p} 2^{-(k p+1) s} \lesssim h^{k p+1}=o\left(h^{k q+1}\right)
$$

Acknowledgement 1. I thank David Preiss for very helpful discussion. I also appreciate the help of Alexander Stokolos.

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[^0]:    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. Primary 26A27; secondary 26A24.
    Key words and phrases. $L^{p}$ derivative, Peano derivative, $L^{p}$ Peano derivative, super density.
    This research was partially supported by a grant from the Faculty and Development Program of the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, DePaul University.

    This paper is in final form and no version of it will be submitted for publication elsewhere.

